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NUMBER
10

PROGRESS OF AIR TRANSPORT IN EUROPE
HELIUM AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE FOR AIRSHIPS
STABILITY AND CONTROLLABILITY OF AIRPLANES

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Metal Propeller Department
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MARCH 9, 1925

AVIATION

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CONTENTS

Editorial	200	Progress of Air Transport in Europe	220
Stability and Controlability of Airplanes	200	Ballon and Its Value for Ascents	222
An Interesting Photograph	200	Backfire	223
Resolutions to Protect Mitchell	200	Aeroplanes and Airways	224
Schneider Cup Race	200	United States Air Force	226
Aviation Day Suggested	200		

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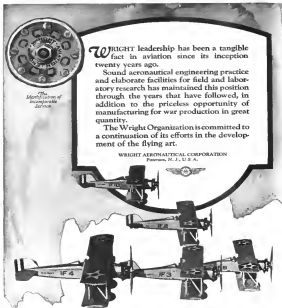
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AVIATION

VOL. XVIII

MARCH 9, 1935

No. 10

The Issues Joined

SO many questions and doubts regarding aircraft have come out of Washington during February that it has been difficult to determine just what the exact differences between armors and others have been.

The report of the Special Naval Board states the Navy's point of view and perhaps it will bring the whole controversy more definitely to the point of an effort to state the disposition of airplanes. While it would require many pages to give the supporting data for each claim, the issue of the discussion can be briefly stated in the following terms. (The pages refer to the naval report.)

Armors assert that the mission of the Navy has been greatly changed by aircraft. The Board does not give an estimate of this change other than depends aerial warfare or the control of shipping. (p. 40).

Armors claim that aircraft beach attack is directed against the bottom of battleships where they are most vulnerable. The Board asserts that aircraft bombs exploding alongside would cause "few injuries and probably no loss of life" under such conditions and that "a repair party immediately after each explosion could stop the same leaks by wooden plugs and welds." (p. 41).

Armors claim that the only defense against air attack is to destroy the aircraft. The Board believes that "in defending a battleship against air attack, the anti-aircraft gun probably holds first place." (p. 42).

Armors declare that troops cannot be transported and loaded from ships under most protection where there is no air defense. The Board affirms "no development of aircraft possible sea take over the mission of the surface Navy, one object of which is to transport the Army, in order to break down remaining enemy resistance" (p. 43, also p. 44). "Aircraft attack, when met by equal aircraft or good anti-aircraft gun, will not be able to prevent the transport of troops" (p. 45).

Armors predict that future wars will commence in the air and that by the use of gas, explosives and ground attack aircraft will paralyze industry, naval and civilian activities before land and sea forces can come into action. The Board, while admitting that this "might conceivably play a tremendously important part in Europe, air power is not so vitally important to us" (p. 46).

Armors claim that aeronautical engineers can now produce aircraft which can carry out all the operations required for making the air force the first line of defense of any country. The Board looks the increase of performance to thirty per cent. (p. 47).

Armors point to the expenditure of \$433,000,000 in five years by authorized Government services without adequate results as a chief argument for establishing a Department of

Aeronautics. The Board asserts that the department would require colossal expense amounting to "many millions" and would now largely avoided by the existing arrangement. (p. 48).

Armors assert that aircraft alone with adequate equipment can strike an offensive. The Board denies this and states that an independent air offensive is essentially a raid. (p. 49).

Armors assert that the British are maintaining the superiority and control of the air force in terms of its air force and that other armors can be controlled accordingly. The Board definitely asserts that air will attack alone cannot occupy or control either sea or land areas.

Armors claim that a unification of procurement, operations and maintenance of aircraft would cause great savings. The Board notes this assertion with the statement that it would require a substantial depletion of the Supply Corps of the Navy. (p. 41).

Armors regard that there has seemed to be manager support given to aviation development by the senior officers of the Navy. The Board asserts this attitude by declaring for some "fixed policy" and placing aviation "in the mind of the Navy" on a par with "submarine data, engineering data, ordnance data, etc." (p. 51).

The issues are joined. Let the best proof win.

60% Army—40% Navy Air Service

IT has cropped out in the Congressional hearings that the Secretary of War believes that the Army Air Service should be given 60 per cent of the entire government appropriation for aviation and the Navy allowed 40 per cent. To this the Secretary of the Navy objects and on this point of difference the excellent Lanier Report has been passed laid for two years.

The great importance cannot be placed on this contention, as it leads directly to the main advantage of having a Department of Defense headed by an impartial Secretary who after his deliberations could reach a decision as to the relative efficiency of funds in the different services of the National Defense. As it now stands, a deadlock has been reached and the only person in an impartial position to make a decision is the President. As the matter does not appear to have been laid before him for final determination, the whole report is left to gather dust and become obsolete through use.

It would be difficult for Congress without full information to attempt to apportion the relative funds required for the Navy and Army Air Services. As it stands now, the ratio is about 60-40. With the past utilization of funds equipment and duplicating personnel and a clear definition of functions, it is not improbable that the 60-40 ratio if advisable could be achieved on the basis of service needs rather than expenditures.

Stability and Controllability of Airplanes

Part I—Longitudinal Stability and Controllability

By B. V. KORVIN-KROUKOVSKY

A vast amount of the literature has been written on the question of stability, yet when one actually begins to design an airplane, one can hardly find any practical information on the subject and after short surveys of the textbooks and magazines usually has to rely on pure guess.

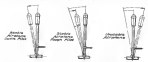


Fig. 1 Comparative moments of control stick required for various types of airplanes

The existing literature can be readily divided in two distinct classes. The first class is formed by mathematical works of Bregent, Baudouin and their followers, and to these works we are indebted for large portions of our present knowledge of stability. However, written by mathematicians and for mathematicians, these works can hardly be mastered by the average designer engineer, both for lack of sufficient mathematical training and for lack of time. Besides, the practical use of any of these methods involves extensive and complicated word setting of the model of each airplane to be designed, the cost of which often will be found prohibitive. The second class is formed by numerous popular articles and chapters in aeronautical textbooks. These usually suffer from being too popular, and not giving enough specific information to be of much value to the airplane designer. The majority of such papers were written during some immediately after the war, and contain good deal of information on so-called "old" methods. Great advance has been made since the war in the science of aerodynamics, particularly in study of the aerodynamics of stability, but the information so accumulated is numerous technical reports, most of which are confined to some one specific aspect of the question.

Applicable to Practical Design

The aim of this paper is to present the question of stability and controllability of the airplane as completely as possible, making use of all available information available at present on this subject and on related subjects. However, it is not proposed to give a mere summary of the existing literature, but to give practical and specific information which can be applied to practical design. Being the trained engineer engaged in airplane design in large aircraft building concerns, there are many useful builders' methods, there are many facts, and occasionally building efficiently new machines. Established by the builders of gliders and light planes will increase as much as for the first time. It is the intention of the author to satisfy the needs of these airplane builders, few of whom had much of a mathematical training and most of whom are in haste need of direct and to the point sources on stability and controllability questions. It is hoped to give these same the trouble and expense of making their own calculations and try method, or at least to give them a favorable start for such a method.

In preparation of the work outlined above, it was necessary to make this paper very popular and to free it from all mathematical. One was taken to have all explanations, however

popular, scientifically correct, but the proofs and demonstrations of these corrections were left out for the sake of brevity and brevity. In order not to be altogether arbitrary, as far as possible, the author has used the data of the two Appendices giving mathematical explanations and treatment of stability and balance, on which most of the popular treatment is based. Always keeping in mind the practical application of the results, the author considered some special cases in such a way as to give at the end of each the rule formula to be used in the practical work, and to demonstrate the use of these formulae by the comparison of applications to the actual airplanes.

The paper is arranged in two parts, the first dealing with longitudinal stability and sense of the elevator control, and the second dealing with the lateral stability and the action of ailerons and rudders. The question of dynamic stability and its relation to stability was very little touched upon in the existing literature. In the preparation of this paper considerable stress has been laid on the explanation of control action and on the design of control machines.

Static and Dynamic Stability

Under longitudinal stability and controllability of an airplane we will consider the stability in pitching and the behavior of an airplane in respect to the elevator control. The primary definition of stability is that the airplane, balanced in one position, when disturbed, will return to the same position by itself after each disturbance, either due to a gust of wind or due to action of the controls. Thus, if, at the instant the airplane will be balanced at, say, 70 m.p.h. and the pilot without touching the throttle will make it dive and then higher speed, say 80 m.p.h., is entered and then let the controls alone, the airplane will come on its own course, and after each disturbance will return to the same position. If, on the other hand, if the pilot without touching the throttle will make it dive and then higher speed, say 80 m.p.h., is entered and then let the controls alone, the airplane will come on its own course, and after each disturbance will return to the same position. If, on the other hand, if the pilot without touching the throttle will make it dive and then higher speed, say 80 m.p.h., is entered and then let the controls alone, the airplane will come on its own course, and after each disturbance will return to the same position.

If an airplane has the tendencies instead of diving down or rising up, will not let the machine stable or dive, it is called dynamically unstable. This case is very seldom met in practice, and the machine stable stability is usually found to be static dynamically as well.

It is to be emphasized that dynamic stability or instability can be discovered only by means of the theory or by means of steady-state machine picture after returning to its own state of balance. If the machine is actually unstable it has no tendency to return to its state of balance on its own, it is not, but rather tends to sink or rise.

The conception of airplane stability or instability, although well determined in science, is not an rigorous and accurate

as we are accustomed to find in the application to actual state on the earth. In fact for most of the objects we are used to, we assume immediately the instability with danger. While speaking of the stability of a new bank for the first time, we just give a definite idea, if it is not stable it will require and consequently it is not suitable for use. This kind of reasoning evidently does not apply to the airplane as many stable airplanes were not only much and had many other things as well. The Curtiss J3H, for instance, is suitable for most of its speed range. The Sopwith "Canard," a very popular British design, is also known to be unstable. It is true that an unstable machine will not fly very long with hands off, but even in stable machines the pilot does not leave the controls for long, simply because the stick is the best place to be in. In fact, in the case of unstable machines, the pilot must be able to control the machine and the stick is the best place to be in. In fact, in the case of unstable machines, the pilot must be able to control the machine and the stick is the best place to be in.

Movements of Control Stick

The stable airplane always tends to return to the attitude of its speed, i.e., it becomes once heavy in a stall and tail heavy in a loop. The unstable machine, on the contrary, tends to move away from its attitude of balance after such disturbance. It becomes tail heavy in a stall and nose heavy in a loop. The diagram on Fig. 2 illustrates the movements of control stick required to increase the air speed from say 70 m.p.h. to 80 m.p.h. without touching the throttle in case of the stable and unstable machines. In the case of the stable machine the stick will go up to move the stick forward very little and the machine will balance itself automatically according to new position of the elevator. A rough push may move stick further forward as the pilot gets used to get used to the machine and then the stick will go back to the position back of the original one. In case of the unstable machine the pilot moves the stick forward to effect a change in the trim, but immediately has to move it back to the position back of the original one to counteract the tendency of the unstable airplane to take charge and to move nose dive. Thus we see that in a stable machine the required movements of the control stick are small and in an unstable machine they are large and the stick will go back to the position back of the original one to counteract the tendency of the unstable airplane to take charge and to move nose dive.

We will mention here the specific case of extreme instability when an airplane is unstable in a stall and tail heavy in a loop. In such a case the stick will go up to move the stick forward very little and the machine will balance itself automatically according to new position of the elevator. A rough push may move stick further forward as the pilot gets used to get used to the machine and then the stick will go back to the position back of the original one. In case of the unstable machine the pilot moves the stick forward to effect a change in the trim, but immediately has to move it back to the position back of the original one to counteract the tendency of the unstable airplane to take charge and to move nose dive. Thus we see that in a stable machine the required movements of the control stick are small and in an unstable machine they are large and the stick will go back to the position back of the original one to counteract the tendency of the unstable airplane to take charge and to move nose dive.

Criterion and Test of Static Stability

When a test pilot reports the airplane to be "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory," his opinion is based on the "feel" of the controls, which is then depends on the weight of the machine, its balance, degree of static and dynamic stability and on the nature of the controls. The designer of the airplane, in order to satisfy the requirements of the machine, or to correct an unstable machine into satisfactory one, needs to know the nature of the controls. The designer of the airplane, in order to satisfy the requirements of the machine, or to correct an unstable machine into satisfactory one, needs to know the nature of the controls. The designer of the airplane, in order to satisfy the requirements of the machine, or to correct an unstable machine into satisfactory one, needs to know the nature of the controls.

and the forces on control stick at different air speeds within good range of the machine, or even including accelerated glide (with engine running). Such measurements of the forces on control stick and sense of elevator control were made by the staff of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics for Curtiss J3H, Vought V7 and DH8 airplanes. The results of these measurements are reproduced on Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 and are very interesting as the Vought V7 and the DH8 are credited with good handling qualities in the

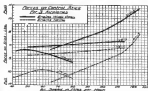


Fig. 2 Forces required on control stick of DH8, V7 and J3H airplanes

operation of the pilots, and the J3H, although not quite completely stable, is very close to being stable. The very popular and probably can be later as the trim looks which the handling qualities should not drop.

We must remember that the forward position of the stick and a push on it at high speed, or backward position and pull on it at low speed, are characteristics for stable airplanes, while the reverse takes place in the case of unstable one. The magnitude of forces on stick or at movement of the elevator for speed deviation from the speed of balance, or spinning more generally, the slope of curves indicate the degree of stability possessed by the airplane under consideration. Thus from Fig. 2 we conclude that of three machines tested DH8 is most stable over the entire speed range. The Vought V7 is slightly stable. In fact, in degree of stability, indicated by an Air Service advanced training machine, current to be considered as unstable but a controlled case. The Curtiss J3H is found to be stable in speed below 80 m.p.h. and unstable above it, it is unstable for most of the speed range.

Trimming Speed Figures

The air speed of balance, usually called trimming speed, is indicated by the intersection of the curve of stick forces with zero force. From Fig. 2 we find that the DH8 balances at 73 m.p.h., the Vought V7 at 77 m.p.h., and the J3H remains nose heavy at all speeds, but nose becomes less indicated around 50 m.p.h. The curves for 50 m.p.h. were obtained with the stabilizer set at zero angle of attack.

The curve of forces on the control stick plotted against air speed, as it was done on Fig. 2, can be readily obtained in the test flights and its shape undoubtedly represents the best criterion of stability. From the designer's point of view it is the best way of representing the stability of the machine, stability and efficiency of controls, rather than such as separately, and a further drawback in that it cannot be extracted during design of the airplane with any degree of certainty. The curve of forces on the control stick plotted against air speed, as it was done on Fig. 2, can be readily obtained in the test flights and its shape undoubtedly represents the best criterion of stability. From the designer's point of view it is the best way of representing the stability of the machine, stability and efficiency of controls, rather than such as separately, and a further drawback in that it cannot be extracted during design of the airplane with any degree of certainty.

the design of the airplane and its flying qualities as reported from test flights. When both static and elevator curves meet curves for the airplane are available, then comparison shows the efficiency of the elevator, as well as its control effect, only as compared with the design with balancing. Hence a set of curves supplies the designer with extensive information as to the static stability of the airplane and the efficiency of controls, leaving only the degree of dynamic stability to the feel and judgment of the pilot.

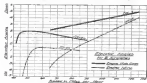


Fig. 1 Elevator angles for DH-6 and DH-6A airplanes.

We will return later in this paper to the analysis of these curves and will show how they are used in making diagrams as to the nature of the gyrostatic behavior of an airplane. For the moment, however, we consider what the stability is due to and what affect different characteristics of the airplane have on it.

Causes of Static Stability and Instability

The behavior of an airplane of a given weight is related to longitudinal control is completely characterized by the degree of static stability it possesses, the degree of dynamic stability and the efficiency or peculiar properties of the elevators. Each of these characteristics must be considered and adjusted individually if a satisfactory handling airplane is to be produced.

Pitch characteristics, wind tunnel tests and mathematical calculations all show that static stability depends almost entirely on the position of the center of gravity of the airplane. The position is defined by three dimensions—vertical distance from leading edge of the mean chord, vertical height, and roll distance to the same point, and distance from the propeller thrust line measured perpendicular to it. All these distances are usually expressed in terms of the mean air-dynamic chord. The horizontal distance of the center of gravity from the leading edge is the most important of these three dimensions. The airplane is more stable the nearer the center of gravity is located to the leading edge. An airplane without a tailplane is in neutral equilibrium when the center of gravity is located at 15 per cent of the chord and right on it, and unstable if the center of gravity is located farther back. The center of gravity located below the leading edge at the mean chord acts as a pendulum and increases the stability, whereas, if located above the leading edge, it decreases the stability. The effect of the vertical movement of the center of gravity is, however, not very large—usually speaking, lowering the center of gravity from its normal position at the mean chord is equivalent to moving it forward one per cent.

The most important and not altogether desirable effect of the vertical location of the center of gravity on stability is the variation of stability with air speed. If the center of gravity of an airplane is located on the mean chord, the airplane shows the same degree of stability at all speeds and all angles of incidence. If the center of gravity is below the mean chord the airplane is more stable at low speed than at high speed. This is because the low position of the center of gravity produces a pendulum effect, which is most pro-

nounced at low speed when the angles of incidence vary rapidly by the small variation of air speed. The effect of low speed, however, of the center of gravity is not confined to the center and more aerodynamic way, by considering the horizontal distance of the center of gravity from the leading edge of the mean chord. As the angle of incidence increases, the cone of gravity moves forward for wing moves backward and the deceleration decreases. This of course results in increase of stability, as it was explained earlier. The magnitude of the variation at present have the center of gravity below the mean chord and display measure of static stability at low speed, which effect was previously erroneously attributed to the reduced tail plane.

Ideal Case of Stability

The location of the center of gravity below the mean chord is favorable to static stability, because above a point line is proportional to it. The magnitude of the effect is directly proportional to the engine power, and inversely proportional to the weight of the airplane, as is shown in every diagram in Appendix I. The effect is not large in case of the engine of conventional design such as J-10 or Vought V-12, but it is very important in case of the flying boats. The stability added by the propeller thrust of course varies with the distance and disappears entirely when the engine is located on the tail.

Thus we see that a variation in height of the center of gravity either with respect to the mean chord or to the propeller thrust line gives an effect which varies under different conditions of flight, and at high or low speed, and at high or low lift. The ideal case then is one in which the center of gravity is located symmetrically on the mean chord and on the propeller thrust line, and at about the low end of the lift range. This makes the airplane without a tailplane neutrally stable at all angles of incidence and at all air speeds, and hence to the maximum the prevention of the proper margin of stability.

The effect of the tail on static stability is not so obvious as it is apparently is supposed to be, because of the small upward ratio of the tail plane as compared to the wing, and because of the location of the downwash of the wing. It is not so hard to build effort to just about equal to the margin of stability desirable in the complete machine, and equally equivalent to conventional air stability produced by wing and center of gravity. This means that an airplane with a conventional tail has a neutral or very slight degree of stability, but must not be unstable. This applies especially to the conventional propeller-driven airplane, where the center of gravity is located on the mean chord, but in some cases of jet engines and observation machines, somewhat neutral stability for the complete airplane may be desirable. The Vought V-12 is good illustration of the latter case.

A Valuable Approximation

The statements given above may appear tedious to the reader interested in the general character of the airplane in inherently unstable, and that it is made stable only by the effect of the tail. For a more detailed explanation and by the proof of these statements we will refer reader to the Appendix I, in which the method of calculation of static stability is given, together with the examples of its practical application. For the reader who do not feel qualified to go into calculations as outlined in the Appendix I we will give the following rough rule for the proper location of the center of gravity required for the stability. First place the center of gravity at 15 per cent of the mean chord. Then move it back one per cent for each 1 per cent of location below leading edge of the mean chord, or smaller amount forward if the center of gravity is located above mean chord.

We must call your readers' attention to the fact that location of the center of gravity requires the proper location of the same regardless of the wing section and has nothing to do with the position of the center of pressure. Such a location of the center of gravity, of course, does not naturally produce a balance for the airplane at the angle of incidence of the wing of the stabilizer at proper negative angle of attack. The stability cannot be obtained by any other means but the proper location of the center of gravity. The balance at low air speed, on the other hand, can readily be obtained by

the setting of the stabilizer. The understanding that it is the stability and not the balance requirements that govern the location of the center of gravity is being reached only in recent years. In some of the early days, it was not rare that the designer endeavored to place the center of gravity at the center of pressure for the air speed at which the balance was desired. The result in the center of gravity often being located as far back as 50 per cent of the mean chord with all corresponding loss of stability, including frequent uncomfortable crashes, later found that we know now as aerodynamic stability. A detailed discussion of airplane balance is outside of the scope of this paper. As an example, however, the balance is very closely connected with the stability, there is included in the work Appendix II, giving the method by which proper margin of stability can be computed after the location of the center of gravity is divided up on basis of the data given in the Appendix I, or rough rule cited earlier in this paper: (To be continued.)

An Interesting Photophone

The little airplane which is illustrated below was built by W. W. Kuhnert, an aerial photographer of Camp Hill, Pa., and is used entirely for aerial photography. The main dimensions are as follows: Span, 20 ft.; height, 10 ft.; wing length, 18 ft. 3 in.; height 18 ft. 3 in.; height 18 ft. 3 in.; weight, empty 200 lb.; useful load 200 lb. The ship is equipped with a Leica-type 2 cylinder horizontal opposed engine and has a landing gear of 30 in. diameter wheels on a springless axle 18 in. This ship can take off and land in small fields.

The most thing about this plane is the fact that it was built from two scraps and did parts with the exception of the motor and wings. The wings are reconstructed DH-6's (5) shown.

The Kuhnert's specially designed aerial camera is attached to the bottom of the fuselage in such a manner that it will photograph either oblique or vertical. This plane was first successfully test flown by Fred Oscar K. Rodgers of Mechanicsville, Pa., and is now being flown by Mr. Kuhnert himself.

Resolutions to Protect Mitchell

Congressman F. H. Lathrop, formerly Major in the Air Service, has introduced in the House two resolutions intended to protect the designer of the airplane.

The order: "That no officer of the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps shall be transferred, demoted, reprimanded, discharged,

"Rescinded Further, That this Act shall take effect immediately."

The other order is in the Army an officer of "Chief Flying Officer of the Army Air Service who shall also act as assistant to the Chief of the Air Service of the Army. The said Chief Flying Officer shall be selected and assigned by the Secretary of War to serve for a term of four years, and during each term shall have the rank, precedence, and pay of brigadier general of the army. Provided, That the first Chief Flying Officer so assigned shall have been for at least ten years a flying officer of the United States Army and have held the rank of brigadier general for at least five years next preceding such assignment, and shall have served as a flying officer of the American Expeditionary Force for at least eighteen months.

Hereafter whenever a vacancy occurs in the assignment or position of Chief of Air Service, the Chief Flying Officer of the Army shall be assigned as such Chief of the Air Service."

Schneider Cup Race

In connection with the international airplane race for the Schneider Cup, which will be held at Baltimore either Oct. 20 or Oct. 25, it is understood that Great Britain has already made a formal entry, and both France and Italy are expected to enter by April 1, the closing date of entries.

According to Max H. D. Taylor, of the Baltimore Flying Club, plans will be made by that organization to select five well-equipped and well-known pilots to compete in the Schneider cup airplane race. The rules providing the award of the Schneider Cup provide that the country winning a three times becomes the permanent owner of the trophy. Great Britain and Italy both have each won it, and in 1923 was won by the U. S. Navy. Great Britain and Italy both withdrew from the race last year, the reason assigned for the withdrawal of the British certain being that the airplanes scheduled to take part were damaged or obsolete.

"Aviation Day" Suggested

In order to properly commemorate Dec. 17, the anniversary of the first flight of the airplane, it is suggested that the United States one of the great achievements of 1903, the House of Representatives of the National Aeronautics Association, at a recent meeting expressed the sentiment that they should be uniformly commemorated throughout the country and adopted a resolution to the effect that the President of the



The Kuhnert Photophone (30 hp. Leica-type 2 engine) one of the few ultralight airplanes in the country which was built by W. W. Kuhnert of Camp Hill, Pa., for his own photographic work.

United States be requested to designate Dec. 17 as such year "Aviation Day." In this resolution, the Board of Aeronautics plans themselves to assist in making this commemorative occasion suitable for emphasizing the importance of our aeronautical development to our national welfare as well as peace and our security in time of war.

Progress of Air Transport in Europe

Total Traffic of Six Years Aggregates Over 25,000 Tons

The following are extracts from a report submitted to The Honorable Secretary of War through the Chief of Air Service by an officer designated to study commercial aviation abroad who has just returned to the United States after traveling more than 6,000 mi. by air over Europe—Europe.

In the five years from 1919 to 1923, inclusive, European air lines have carried 33,797,560 passengers in 522 complete circuits at the world at the airport—and have transported 115,225 passengers, 2,800,000 lb. of mail and 7,600,000 lb. of goods. It is estimated that during 1924 an additional 2,800,000 passengers, 2,800,000 lb. of mail and 7,600,000 lb. of goods were transported.

Governments are showing great interest in developing commercial aviation and contributing liberally to its support and maintenance, in spite of the serious financial difficulties which many of the Continental nations have been facing during the year, under the war.

From Africa to Finland by Air

Passengers may be looked for on, through, and to the regular travel agencies, from London via Paris and Vienna to Constantinople, or to Berlin to Moscow, Russia, Riga, Warsaw, Poland, from Paris to Copenhagen, Denmark; from Stockholm, Finland to Goteborg, Sweden, to southern Africa, and on to most of other states.

The volume of passenger traffic is increasing every year, more than 1,000 passengers a week leaving London by air for the Continent during certain seasons of the summer. The majority of these passengers and of London are American tourists and it is estimated that over 75,000 Americans visited Europe last year, most of them crossing the channel by boat.

articles such as dresses, furs, jewelry, fragile goods, light machinery, etc., between London and Paris or Amsterdam on several times less by air than by boat and rail. Much gold and silver are shipped across the channel by air, one ship alone having received \$2,000,000 worth.

The principal trade in the continent are lines of Ex-Im, France, Germany and Holland are the leading industrial, shipping, banking and forwarding organizations of Europe. They are convinced that air transportation is destined to fill an important role in the economic life of the Continent. In this respect the European public is much more awake to the significance of aviation, both as an element of national defense and as a transportation agent, than in the American public.

Foreign Government Support

In addition to direct subsidy grants, considerable indirect Government support is offered to promote the growth of commercial aviation by the establishment of large airports at the principal cities, at which Government erected hangars, and other facilities are rented to the operating companies for a nominal sum, by the free use of Government built communication lines, by the development of technical apparatus for commercial aviation, and in a number of other ways. In several countries new laws have been created to the expense of the state as at Kensington, Berlin, and Brindley, etc. Berlin has a big municipal landing field under its arm at Tempelhof Park, which may be reached from the center of the city in ten or less than twenty minutes.

European nations are faced with a tremendous political difficulty in the development of air lines. In Europe the principal basis of business exchange is direct travel and not

steam may be seen in the amount of operating expenses accumulated since the war. The aggregate number of air transport miles flown during the five years 1919-1923 is 20,716,100 mi. It is estimated that this will be increased during the present year, 1924, by 5,500,000 mi. The development of air operating expenses, per year, is as follows:

TOTAL PAYING MILEAGE IN EUROPE	
Year	Total paying mileage
1919	1,100,000
1920	1,100,000
1921	1,100,000
1922	1,100,000
1923	1,100,000
1924	1,100,000

These figures include all military flying and all local or special flights; they represent only regular air transportation except over regular routes throughout the world, for which special statistics are available, carrying passengers, mail or cargoes.

Passenger Air Traffic

In the preceding figures are an impressive measure of the accumulated amount of operating experience in air transportation, so the following statistics indicate the present traffic of passengers.

DEVELOPMENT OF PASSENGER AIR TRAFFIC	
Year	Total passengers
1919	1,100,000
1920	1,100,000
1921	1,100,000
1922	1,100,000
1923	1,100,000
1924	1,100,000

Thus, in the first five years a total of 121,000 passengers have been transported by air lines throughout the world.

The air mail traffic has been developed most extensively in Europe, where the mail carried by the Post Office Department in March, 1924, between London and Paris, France, represents the major portion of the aggregate traffic figures. In 1923 a total of 2,705,377 lb. of mail was transported by air, of which 1,115,100 lb. were U. S. mail over the transatlantic route. In 1923 the European air mail from France to Moscow grew rapidly in volume and of the total 2,465,259 lb. carried that year, 753,000 lb. represents European air mail traffic. This aggregate mail has been increasing steadily and totals 7,145,579 lb. for the five years 1919-1923, inclusive.

Freight Traffic

The recent rapid growth in the volume of air freight traffic is indicated in the following table in its special nature:

DEVELOPMENT OF FREIGHT TRAFFIC	
Year	Total freight
1919	1,100,000
1920	1,100,000
1921	1,100,000
1922	1,100,000
1923	1,100,000
1924	1,100,000

Business men are beginning to learn that they can depend on air transportation for the expedient of communication of all kinds and regular communication of state papers, particularly, etc., and a hundred other articles are to be found traveling in the European airways. The fact that passenger rates are usually less by air than by boat and rail the valuable goods sent between England and the Continent has played an important part in increasing business men of the merits of the new form of transportation.

The aggregate traffic experience of air transportation has been so appreciated of the weight of passengers, mail, and goods carried as evidenced in one figure, this, if we allow 25 lb. per passenger as a conservative figure, and the volume of the statistics for the present year, 1923, the total traffic on the air lines for six years is \$1,271,300 lb., or over 25,000 tons.

The safety of passenger may be observed by the record of the British and French air lines during the three years from 1921 to 1923, inclusive. During that time, 7,950,000 passengers miles were flown; for two years no fatal accident occurred, while in 1923 there was one accident resulting in one death. Since the passenger air miles per passenger fatality for this period is 1,963,390.

Safety of Railroads and Airways

A comparison of this with the record of railroad lines is an interesting one. The New York Central Railroad, according to the Post Assistant Director of the Interstate Commerce Commission, carried two billion eight hundred million passenger miles

during the calendar year 1923, during which time 634 passengers were killed or injured. (This includes accidents to employees, passengers and all persons other than paying passengers.) Hence the number of passenger train miles per passenger fatality is 4,900,000. It will thus be seen that the safety record of the air line is not far behind that of American



U. S. Air Mail plane equipped with a 40-horsepower motor.

Being which can be substituted for the regular wheel gear in 15 min.

aircraft. And this has been possible in five years of development, whereas the railroads have eighty years of operating behind them.

It is hard to realize that mail sent by air actually is subject to less loss or destruction than registered packages sent by train. For that, then, in the records show without a question, that in the three years through 1923 the U. S. Post Office Air Mail Service carried 4,116,500 lb. of mail with a loss of only 236 lb.; this is five one-thousandths of one per cent, less or destroyed.

Compare this with the percentage of registered packages carried on U. S. trains during 1923 which were lost or destroyed, namely seven one-thousandths of one per cent. There is practically no theft heard when valuable mail or goods are sent by air and the amounts in part for the lower insurance rates which are offered by European companies for goods shipped by air.

Air Mail More Regular than Trains

It is a remarkable fact to find that the air mail service between New York and Chicago has operated for the past two years with a higher number of its scheduled trips arriving on time at destination than the average for railroad trains. The air mail planes on an 11 hr. schedule between New York and Chicago, that is at a speed of 20 mi. per hr., have arrived on time 85.6 per cent of all their scheduled trips during the period from June, 1921, to May, 1923, inclusive. This is compared with the per cent of scheduled trains to New York State arriving on time at division terminals during 1919-1920 inclusive, namely 81.9 per cent. The average time spent from Syracuse to Toronto is between 25 and 25 mi. per hr. half that of the planes.

A comparison by means shows that during the winter both the trains and the air mail have their greatest number of delayed trips, the trains averaging only 75.2 per cent on time, the air mail 75.8 per cent. During the spring season, the trains are both approximately 80 per cent, but in the summer and autumn the air service is a great deal faster from delayed arrivals than the railroad service, arriving during the summer 80.4 per cent, and during the autumn 80.6 per cent, at all its scheduled trips on time.

It is the significance of the report that "under suitable conditions mail and goods may now be transported by air with equal or greater safety and reliability than by boats and with a great saving in time."



U. S. Post Office

A French biplane which is neither an airplane nor a biplane: the La Crosse "biplane" which flies on rotating wing drives by the power of air.

Valuable Goods Safely by Air

The records of European commercial air services indicate that financial matter, merchandise and freight of all kinds may often be transported by air with greater safety from loss or damage than by the usual methods of boat or rail. The insurance rates, for example, for all risks including theft, on

aircraft flight over several countries. The United States on the other hand, at probably better suited primarily to the establishment of self-supporting air lines than any other country in the world, by reason of the geographical size of the freedom from custom restrictions, excessive national interests and transportation business methods.

That air transportation has now passed the experimental

AIRPORTS AND AIRWAYS

Airways Information

From the Agency Section, C. C. A. S. **Maynard Field, Winston-Salem, N. C.**, is no longer available for landing. There is a field 2 to south of the city which can be used. An abandoned field on the city limits will be used at a later date.

The Washburn-Cookery Co. has secured a 500,000,000 acreage power system on top of its Gold Medal Power generating station, 500 ft. high, at Menominee.

The emergency field at Selma, Ala., (Aer. Bul. 142) has been abandoned. It will be several miles before a new field is available.

The emergency field at Little Rock, Ark., is available for landing due to hazard caused by high tension transmission lines at both ends, and points are enclosed to avoid this field. The 5, sloped commercial field at Des Moines, Iowa, has been discontinued and Sweeney (Emergency) Field, nearby, has been cut into building lots; another is available for landing. **Lowell** at Aer. Bul. 130; northeast of Des Moines, Iowa.

Emergency field at Cranford, N. J., is no longer available as new transmission line is under construction across field. Aer. Bul. 130.

Janey Field, Lansing, Mich., has been abandoned and is no longer available for landing.

From Atlanta to Dayton: The following information concerning landing fields for airplanes in the vicinity of Lake Washington (Fogel Pond Area) has been received from the commanding officer, United States Fleet Air Arm, Commander Doris Flint, U. S. Squadron 1, through the Chief of the Bureau of Aeronautics and the Chief of the Department of Defense.

Ingleside Golf Course—Ingleside golf course, located on the northeastern shore of Lake Washington, at the head of the lake, is the only closed area in this vicinity. The best landing is on the northern shore, which is wet, and west of the approach is from the west and the lake, and there are some high fens accumulating water in the place into a valley. The runway would be a good uphill road with the best 100 yd. a divided uphill slope. There is a sharp hill at the head of the runway covered with trees. This would be a difficult field to pilot a D.E. plane into. Drainage is excellent. The prevailing wind is usually from north and southwest. If a light wind is blowing the slope of the hill will obstruct a down wind landing. Officials of the club have extended the privilege of using their course in case of emergency landings.

Aer. Bul. 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

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Recognized by Military Services as the Finest Single
Seater Fighter in the World

The ORIGINAL combination of:

An Underslung Sloping Core Radiator;

A Small Body properly arranged;

A Semi-thick Airfoil Section of True Contour throughout
the entire length of both the Small Elliptical Lower
Wing and the Larger Tapered Upper Wing;

A Single Bay Biplane with external brace wires in Front
Truss Only;

An ideal proportioning of Unbalanced Control Surfaces,
giving unprecedented ease and range of control.

DESIGNED IN THE YEAR 1922; PRODUCED AND FLOWN EARLY IN THE YEAR 1923

BOEING AIRPLANE COMPANY
SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

